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Alysa Mozak

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Teen Dating Violence: Implications for Iowa

Informative Research Report

Written by: Alysa Mozak

7/20/2011

This document summarizes the research literature, statistics and trends, curricula, and policies behind the social problem of teen dating violence. The purpose is to demonstrate a policy need in the state of Iowa to help protect victims through intervention and preventative measures.

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Teen Dating Violence Overview for Iowa

Conducting a study on teen dating violence (TDV) policy and prevention is important in helping understand how the issue is being perceived. Although formal research and policy initiatives on TDV are a fairly new agenda, the phenomenon itself has been occurring for decades. This report identifies the problem of TDV and examines a variety of approaches for understanding and eliminating it. The report includes seven sections that together demonstrate the need for change in the state of Iowa for a TDV policy. The foundation for the analysis in the report is the socio-ecological model, which comes from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). This model uses four-levels of analysis from micro (individual) to macro (societal) to explain social integration of a given topic; in this case TDV. In some components of the report this model is more explicit and others it is implicit. For example, when examining societal (macro level) statistics the model is more implicitly used. After initially reporting statistics, other components include: a review of academic literature; current TDV trends and methodological problems; nationwide prevention curricula; state TDV policies; a study of TDV in Iowa, which includes an application of a pilot survey; and suggestions for a policy in Iowa.

Providing a statistical and definitional overview of domestic violence (DV) and TDV shows how they are related. Standardized data collection from national agencies such as the CDC shows the scope of the issue. Also, indicating the differences in the statistics and definitions of DV and TDV shows how the phenomenon is widespread and affects all ages of people. Lastly in this section, TDV statistical patterns and victimization impacts are discussed separately from DV to show relevance to the need of elimination of this occurrence.

The purpose of gathering academic literature on TDV is to show how this issue has been studied by different scholars and also to frame the issue. The “Academic Literature” section of the report summarizes empirical studies of current preventative and intervention efforts conducted by academic professionals who have studied the TDV movement and focuses on limitations of the academic research. One focus is on the attitudinal shift in viewing adolescent dating experiences and the social violence within these relationships as a separate entity. I also present the CDC’s four-level socio-ecological model in this section to provide the theoretical framework for the report. The report thus challenges the methods used in the academic research to show the limitations of social science research in relation to the socio-ecological model and to

demonstrate how the conflation of TDV with similar social problems, such as domestic violence, can negatively affect progress in this area.

Next the report addresses methodological problems related to reports of current TDV trends (according to state and federal reporting agencies) as well as data measurement problems. This section of the report documents that there are inconsistent ways of systematically tracking adolescent victimization, leading to problems in developing proper intervention and prevention practices. I show this by presenting DV and TDV rates for eight states; looking at states that already have teen protective order statuses and curriculum initiatives for the prevention of TDV. Also, the report shows that the inconsistent data collection efforts create problems estimating numbers of adolescent victims. To emphasize this, data from a census day created by the National Network to End Domestic Violence and data provided by the National Coalition Against Domestic Violence will be drawn to compare lack of consistency of data collection with adult rates of domestic violence as compared to TDV and adolescent rates.

The fourth important section of this report analyzes the effectiveness of nationwide curricula on TDV. The socio-ecological model is used here to better understand violence and potential strategies for prevention. This model is used to analyze the curriculum's effectiveness, based on two forms of curricula, evidence-based and research-based. This section discusses two research-based and two evidence-based curricula for a comparative approach. An analysis of the curricula show how integrated their use of the socio-ecological model are and how rigorous the methods for testing their effectiveness are for reducing violence.

A fifth section of the report summarizes TDV policies of four states that have policies in place. These states include: Virginia, New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Tennessee. Examining other states' policies helps frame the argument that Iowa can mirror them to create an effective statewide policy. This section analyses the effectiveness of developing new criteria for examining TDV intervention solutions. Legal codes for protecting adolescents of TDV are examined based on their total capacity to help adolescent victims. Lastly in this section, reviews of language of bills show their effectiveness in addressing TDV in regards to prevention and intervention.

The next section of this report outlines a pilot study of TDV in Iowa to help inform policymakers about this important issue. I will also address the lack of TDV measures on the *Iowa Youth Survey*. I also include preliminary findings about survey questions that I designed to measure attitudes and incidences of TDV. The overarching goal of the pilot survey is to provide a foundation that could be used to promote an additional set of questions about TDV behaviors to the *Iowa Youth Survey* so that researchers, educators, and others could document the scope of the social problem in the state. The final section of this report is intended to provide recommendations to the current bill that Iowa state legislators are creating.

Evidence from this report indicates that early detection and education are essential to combating TDV, along with legal policies for victims. It also emphasizes policy changes that must occur, from a state level to a larger societal level, in order to end this epidemic. Such suggestions for the state of Iowa include incorporating the language into legal statutes for teen victims to have the right to obtain a petition of relief for domestic violence, to mandate a curriculum for prevention statewide, and to start a uniform collection of data on TDV incidences in Iowa. In this report, all of these issues combined will be addressed to shed light on the problems and potential solutions to TDV.

A Brief Statistical Overview

This brief overview of statistics about domestic violence and TDV depicts the phenomenon as a serious event on all levels of analysis from an individual (micro) to societal (macro). The reason to examine both domestic and teen dating violence is to show the cyclical nature of the issue. Starting with reviewing DV statistics provides a comparative measure for the limited data on TDV incidences and shows how the two are linked. DV and TDV are considered to be social epidemics. This means that they occur frequently enough to have the both be considered a national health issue (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2011).

It is important to first define domestic violence. The National Center for Victims of Crime defines domestic violence as “the willful intimidation, assault, battery, sexual assault or other abusive behavior perpetrated by one family member, household member, or intimate partner against another” (National Center for Victims of Crime [NCVC], 2008, “Definition,” para. 1). This definition is very similar to the types of violence that occur in TDV. If TDV is not

accurately studied and prevented, then the likelihood for DV rates to stay consistent over years is unfortunately inevitable. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention release annual data about domestic violence. According to the CDC, the earlier these patterns of destructive behaviors are eliminated, the less likely an adult will become a victim of domestic violence, hence how the two are inextricably linked (CDC, 2011). In other words, only through early detection of dating relationships in adolescents and through providing education about abuse can we combat this epidemic so it does not reach into adulthood.

The most substantial impact that DV has on the nation is through related medical issues. Statistics in studies by the CDC show that the cost of DV annually exceeds \$5.8 billion, including \$4.1 billion in direct health care expenses. Domestic violence incidences have been estimated to cost employers in the United States up to \$13 billion each year because of paid leave or medical expenses covered. Research shows that DV costs a health plan \$19.3 million each year for every 100,000 women between the age of 18 and 64 enrolled (CDC, 2003).

Differing slightly from DV, teen dating violence involves similar forms of violence in a dating relationship where two individuals are likely to not be cohabitating (CDC, 2011). The underlying causes of the epidemic can include peer pressure, economic or class issues, family-stemmed issues, and individual mental health concerns. Many teens fear personal embarrassment, social humiliation, and lack of knowledge as a barrier to reporting abuse. Luckily, more TDV policies are being initiated by state agencies that work with victims. Having resources available for this vulnerable population can help reduce victimization rates. The evidence that TDV can be addressed as a public concern is being supported at higher rates.

Reliable and consistent data on TDV is difficult to obtain because results vary across studies, depending on ways it is measured. There is also variation in the types of violent behaviors being surveyed. Some studies only ask about physical abuse, while others include questions about psychological and emotional abuse. Length of time the abuse occurred in the relationship is critical to measure in regards to TDV, but without data being configured about violence over the lifetime, this is hard to obtain. Another reason is because adolescents have not experienced it very long. As a result, some data will only ask about the current relationship or the past year. According to one study, “past estimates of physical and sexual dating violence among high school students range from 10% to 25%. Even higher estimates are found when verbal

threats and emotional abuse are measured as abuse types” (wyofams.org, n.d., p. 1). Another survey by the CDC in 2009 found that 9.8% of female high school students and about 9.1% of male students said they had been hit, slapped, or physically hurt by their boyfriend or girlfriend in the past year. A study done by one of the most well-known researchers on TDV, Nona K. O’Keefe, (1998) estimated that one in three adolescent girls in the United States is a victim of physical, emotional or verbal abuse from a dating partner. She noted that “this type of victimization exceeds any other type of violence affecting adolescent people” (p. 197). Clearly there is inconsistency in measurements of TDV. This inconsistency could be due to sampling size, survey response rates, or other factors such as lack of knowledge about what may count as a type of violent interpersonal behavior.

Victim Impacts

Looking at the way that adolescents learn violent behaviors is important in framing our understanding of TDV. Specifically it is important to look at relational aspects among adolescents and lifestyles that put adolescents at risk for violent activities. Victimization rates among adolescents may influence not only their personal involvement in violent behaviors but also associations that they may have with offending peers (MacMillian, 2001). However, this is not seemingly true for teens who participate in violent dating behaviors. A study by Sharron M. Close (2005) shows that family influences on violent behaviors impact an adolescent more than those violent behaviors learned from peers, especially related to interpersonal behaviors. Many issues ranging from mental health, drug abuse, and emotional neglect from a parent can cause an adolescent interpersonal difficulty with dating partners and peers (Close, 2005). There are also studies showing that young women are more heavily influenced about dating by their peer relationships, which makes them more vulnerable to TDV (Close, 2005).

Dating violence impacts young men and women differently. For instance, young women between the ages of 16 and 24 experience the highest rate of intimate partner violence (YWCA.org, 2006). However, both genders reported being victims of physical violence in relationships. A study conducted by The Dibble Institute reports that, “Many relationships involve mutual abuse, with both partners using violence against the other. However, what is clear from results is that male and female adolescents use physical force for different reasons and with different results” (wyofams.org, n.d., p. 1). The same study found that young women suffer more

emotional and physical violence from relationships. Young women who are in heterosexual dating relationships are more likely than young men to have serious physical injuries and to report being terrified of their boyfriends. In the same report and in stark contrast, the young men seldom fear violence by their girlfriends, often saying that “the attacks did not hurt and that they found the violence amusing.” This study also found that young women in heterosexual relationships are much more likely than their counterparts to suffer from sexual abuse (wyofams.org, n.d., p. 1).

Unhealthy relationships can start early in an individual’s life and last a lifetime; the violent behaviors are cyclical in nature. Dating violence often starts with teasing and name calling on an interpersonal level. These behaviors are often thought to be a “normal” part of a relationship. However, these behaviors can escalate into emotional abuse tactics and lead to more serious violence like physical assault and rape. Adolescents and adults are often unaware how regularly dating violence occurs. This is why there is the need to increase knowledge about intervening in and preventing TDV.

Summary:

- Dating violence effects boys and girls differently
- Girls experience more physical and sexual abuse than boys
- Abuse can escalate from emotional to physical if not recognized
- Policymakers and researchers need consistent measures of TDV
- TDV and domestic violence are inextricably linked
- Having resources available for adolescents to identify the abuse can help eliminate TDV

Academic Literature on TDV

Although formal research has been done on the topic of teen dating violence, many studies are limited in findings due to the difference in simple rhetoric behind the issue. Social science research on the topic of TDV can be conflated under such issues as peer violent behaviors, intimate partner violence, adolescent abuse, domestic violence and the like, making it difficult to isolate. Also, research is often either not specific enough or too specific in an area not directly related to TDV. The other major problem with conflating TDV in with these other

similar categories of abuse is that the victimization age cannot be determined to specify solely adolescents.

Over the past three decades, researchers across disciplines have studied violence, especially what is classified as intimate partner violence. Intimate partner violence is treated much like TDV in that the dynamics of abusive patterns are similar; however much like domestic violence, the difference is in age of victimization and relationship dynamics. This makes viewing TDV as a separate dimension difficult because of the conflation to intimate partner violence, especially in simple definition. Thus, no single perspective dominates the field. Studies focusing on violence and abuse issues have multiplied dramatically to accommodate a variety of theoretical viewpoints and research studies conducted over the past several decades. However, there tends to be one aspect that these studies about violence have in common; they tend to be linked to different levels of analysis based on the socio-ecological model.

Some researchers use more micro level traits and characteristics in their research efforts, keeping focus on the individual. Others study social learning through communities (meso) level contexts. Consistent with this socio-ecological model, some researchers treat violence as more of a societal or cultural occurrence, which is examining the issue through a macro lens (Michalski, 2005). Such depictions at this level of analysis incorporate societal gender norms and practices as they link to violence. Also, other researchers examine the lack of resources on violence measures through social structural issues, which is yet another connection to both meso and macro levels. Despite attempts over recent decades at theoretical integration based on this model, these efforts have not generated a consistent body of research on all levels. This may account for much of the variation in data and procedures related to interpersonal topics (i.e. - intimate partner violence, domestic violence) including the differentiation in which TDV is analyzed among researchers (Michalski, 2005).

The problem with defining TDV as its own area stems from conceptualizing the definition of violence. The widespread definition of aggressive violence used in both research and professional arenas is "an act carried out with the intention or perceived intention of causing physical pain or injury to another person" (Mouradian, 2000, "Physical Abuse," para. 8). Because of this definition's explicit connection to 'physical' injury, some critics have argued for broader definitions of violence. These would include ones that consider consequences, severity, and a

wider range of behaviors, such as emotional violence or abuse, to confirm that there is lack of reporting incidences other than those of physical nature under such a vague definition. Other researchers prefer the term “abuse” in order to present a wider range of defining violence which would include physical, psychological, economic, sexual, verbal, emotional or spiritual abuse (Michalski, 2005). In contrast to researchers like O’Keefe, that support the broad definition of violence, Michalski (2005) states the importance of narrowing the scope of TDV to make it distinguishable as its own entity which helps not only conceptualize it but offers a clearer outcome of reporting specifics like TDV.

TDV Reporting Issues

The author Sharron M. Close (2005) observes some common issues in reports of dating violence and how these factors can be researched academically. Close states that the problem is in the ages categories researchers have used. Since most dating violence occurs to high school and college aged young adults, the population of younger adolescents is often overlooked. However, earlier maturation of adolescents is occurring due to contemporary cultural shifts. This leads to earlier dating behaviors among the preadolescent stage (“tween”) population, or those aged 10-12 years (Close, 2005). This range in ages for reporting dating violence has often been underreported and numbers of actual dating violence cannot properly be measured if ages are constantly changing or not being included in data analyses. This has brought issues within academia and those that study this social phenomenon.

Dating violence prevention studies have primarily focused on prevention in high school or college student populations. Primary prevention programs, those geared to eliminate first time victimization, generally focus on dating violence awareness, conflict management skills, and addressing issues of gender stereotyping (CDC, 2009). Many studies found problems with the age at which these participants were receiving information about abuse. Specifically, high school aged participants in these programs bring life experiences into the classroom regarding their personal dating experiences much differently than would college-aged students. Also, there are far fewer studies involving middle school preadolescents to compare with these studies. According to Close (2005) “this difference also shows that demographic sampling differences, type and length of intervention or prevention measures, as well as lack of follow up for victims

all plays a role in addressing these issues” (p. 4). Because of this, it is unknown how reliable reported rates of TDV are overall.

Although past studies on TDV demonstrate limitations, the benefit is that they collectively offer strategies for further exploration that might be incorporated into more effective designs that include all levels of the socio-ecological model. The main limitation is in the methods conducted in the experiments by the researchers. For example, the use of cross-sectional studies, or those that observe a representative sampling of a population, limits the measures because they relate only to the time, place, and population of that particular study. However, using a longitudinal design, or one that observes the same population over a period of time, is often more effective because follow-ups can be used at specific time intervals to enable the researcher to see if the effects continue over time (Neuman, 2006). Consideration of age of the adolescents needs to be explored using longitudinal studies. Also, legal consenting rights given to minors vary in different states, which could make a study on this population difficult. High attrition rates for this population are typical as well.

There are also factors in research on TDV that limit generalizability such as the sampling size, ethnicity of populations participating, and limited demographic regions. Generalizability, or the ability to make predictions about a population based on experiences, is desirable within TDV in order to plan intervention efforts. Future studies need to be designed so that results may be interpreted as representative of larger populations. Close suggests that “prospective longitudinal design studies using randomly chosen large samples would lend the important feature of generalizability, however this is very difficult to do with TDV victimization” (p. 5-6). Results using this type of design could lead to societal level changes in program implementation and thus reduce incidences of TDV.

Measuring Adolescent Attitudes about TDV

One avenue researchers are conducting studies on is the attitudes that adolescents have about TDV. A factor needing to be discussed in literature in regards to TDV behaviors is that adolescent’s views are not shared with researchers and prevention educators. Thus, the education provided through programming created by researchers to adjust set behaviors that adolescents hold is not occurring because of the design of the program not using their perspectives in

creation. In her article, “*Understanding Young People’s Views of Domestic Abuse*,” the author Melanie J. McCarry (2009) describes the very contradictions that can occur in primary prevention research and intervention with adolescents. The study concluded that there was a significant difference in the views of adolescents in determining who the victim and perpetrator were. Adolescents in this study were hesitant in recognizing men as the primary perpetrators of dating violence (although statistics prove this). They also justified their reasoning in a manner that served to legitimate violence against women (McCarry, 2009).

In her 2009 study, McCarry stated “conducted research with young people found that one in two boys and one in three girls believed that it was acceptable for a man to hit a woman or force her to have sex in certain circumstances” (p. 5). Thus, it was anticipated that the primary prevention strategies would challenge these views and reduce the acceptance of male violence in interpersonal relationships. It was also anticipated that after exposure to these anti-abuse initiatives, the adolescents involved in this research study would be less accepting of male violence against women than other adolescents. This study was very significant in showing how designing a program to fit contemporary backlash issues given by the media, a macro level example, is critical in engaging adolescent’s views about TDV.

A major gap in studies about adolescent’s views, experiences, and use of violence in their relationships remains. All levels of analysis must be integrated to produce a direct change in attitudes. Also, current attitudes and behaviors directly relate to adolescents’ use of violence in the future. Research is critical to both understand and eradicate future incidences of violence; however current research has gaps. As the implications of this social problem of TDV are being recognized, there has been a growth in studies in this area. It appears that the level of violence and abuse in adolescent relationships mirrors the adult population. However, it is crucial that both research and measurement not conflate the two populations (adults and adolescents). Although preventing adolescent violence will lower chances of re-victimization into adulthood and the two are linked, research needs to focus on the two as separate but equal areas.

Summary:

- Conflation of topics related to TDV limits findings
- Study factors such as generalizability impact the findings of TDV

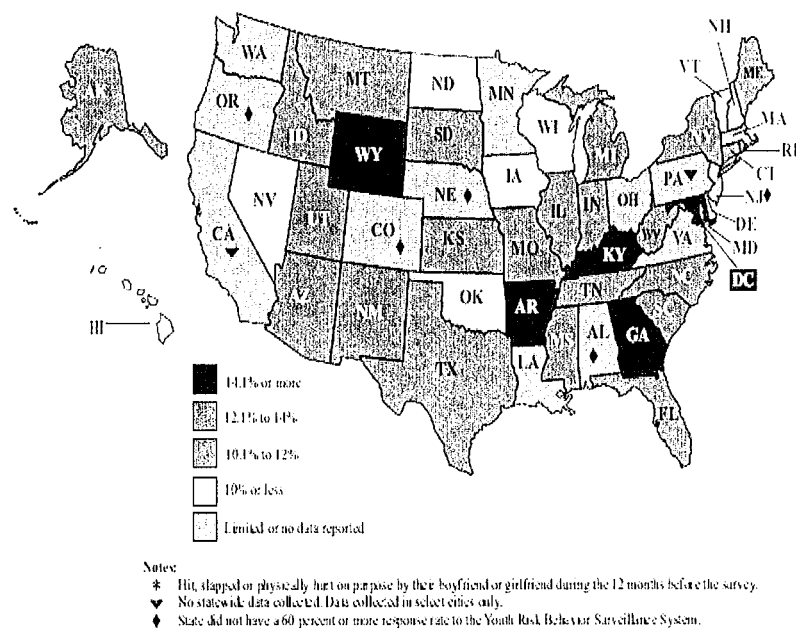
- Young people's views about TDV differ from those of researchers' and professionals' (who create services)
- What constitutes TDV has been changing

Methodological Problems in Counting Victims

In order to understand the levels of TDV rates that occur nationwide, this section discusses how private and governmental agencies count victimization among adolescents. The issue of method problems comes up frequently in finding an accurate depiction of this social epidemic. There are few standardized ways of currently measuring victimization among adolescents and this creates a problem. New strategies are needed to configure an accurate depiction of the problem. Looking at results from one of the surveys conducted by the CDC in 2007, *Youth Risk Behavior Survey* (see Figure 1 below) the evidence is clear that not only is TDV a national problem but one that needs proper identification and intervention methods. The figure also demonstrates that there is no mandated uniform tracking system used to gain insight on a national basis for TDV patterns.

Many problems exist in the way state and national data are being collected and used. National agencies conduct yearly reports but the reports do not make separating age of victimization into a separate category of adolescents easy to do. For example, national data combines TDV and domestic violence rates together in one category. This creates a problem in getting an unduplicated annual count for TDV and domestic violence separately. Additionally, since we are dealing with minors, tracking such data in certain states is unobtainable due to confidentiality issues dealing with adolescent populations. This disclosure would be a violation of federal law and many state laws (NCVC, 2008).

Figure 1
Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System



Source: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System, 2007.

Note. Adapted from National Conference of State Legislatures (2011, May 4). “Percentage of High School Students Who Experienced Dating Violence.” Copyright 2009 by Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Injury Prevention and Control. <http://www.ncsl.org/default.aspx?tabid=17582>

Most DV programs are mandated by federal standards to keep data on the number of victims served, but not necessarily on number of adolescents served. Additionally, some state’s statutes have different languages in what they consider a victim to perpetrator relationship and that may affect rates and statistics compiled. Also, without documenting every individual who seeks services in a given year, these comparative years used to track rate changes will not hold much significance. Furthermore, using current data to estimate a total number of victims would likely produce an inaccurate total count due to this discrepancy. Due to these factors, many agencies use a “snapshot” methodology that provides an unduplicated count to measure and is the best way of showing trends in the number of victims per year. Hence, most reports are an aggregate nationwide count of victims (National Network to End Domestic Violence [NNEDV], n.d.).

Since most data that is collected by age of victimization on a national basis is categorized as a scale of under 12, 12 and over or 16-25 years, it is difficult to document TDV specifically.

This is especially true when the age categories of 16-25 years are measured together, which occurs in the national standards set by the Bureau of Justice (Bureau of Justice Statistics [BJS], 2011). There is no way of separating data to only count adolescent rates. Also, new studies are including the 'tween' population, or those age 10-12 years, as part of statistics gathered about TDV. As the age of TDV changes, the way in which statistics are gathered must change as well into a uniform format across the nation. Comparing adult domestic violence rates to teen dating violence rates has problems because they are different phenomena.

National surveillance systems were designed by many federal and state agencies to determine the percentages of violence that occurs. However, some vital categories about abuse were not collected. For example, a desirable category might be how many years the relationship lasted. No single agency is likely to collect all of the data categories recommended due to many issues related to the victim participating in providing information. Because of this, it is likely that anyone setting up a surveillance system will need to combine data from a number of sources (e.g., health care records and police records) using a shared database (CDC, 2011).

Surveillance systems also tend to focus on whether injury occurred within domestic violence. However, because multiple forms of violence co-occur in a large number of cases and the fact that domestic violence is cyclical, this data alone may be less accurate than is needed to understand all aspects of domestic violence. To obtain more accurate estimates of the number of individuals affected by domestic violence, there is a need to develop instruments that link data from multiple categories (CDC, 2011). However, different legal requirements governing health providers, law enforcement, and domestic violence agencies in regards to minors and what data can be collected and shared would pose a problem in effectively collecting TDV information from multiple sources.

How information is collected by these agencies can pose a problem in the accuracy of statistics as well. Teen dating violence is subjective, meaning violent behaviors based on categories are interpreted by the individuals who experience it. This creates an issue with measurements asking victims to identify violent behaviors they have endured through scales of activities. Another issue is that adolescents often do not identify some categories of TDV (such as emotional) due to lack of knowledge on issues. Reported rates of violence may lack validity due to the inability to consistently measure the same category of abuse and responses over time

by individuals. However, data does capture a sense of urgency to the issue because most rates remain fairly consistent no matter how they are studied. Most projects rely heavily on data from surveys on types of victimization to show validity and statistics (NNEDV, n.d.).

Data Sampling

This section compares state surveillance data on adolescents and children from states with TDV policies. Statistics from Iowa are also viewed with these states to provide a comparison for what is needed in this state. This data sampling demonstrates that conflation issues undermine the attempts to count victimization for adults and TDV separately. For example, Table 1 illustrates how programs conflate child domestic violence and teen dating violence, thus giving inaccurate victimization rates.

Some federally funded agencies require data to be analyzed across the nation on a given day to determine victimization and to generalize from it. Such surveillance data is drawn from many entities including shelters, law enforcement agencies, hospitals and other projects that serve victims of abuse. In Table 1, from the National Network to End Domestic Violence (2009), column 1 indicates the states with TDV policies, column 2 indicates the percentage of victims served that day who were children or adolescents, and column 3 shows the number of adolescent participants of anti-violence prevention programming for the surveillance day. This table is a prime example of “snap-shot” methodology because it only counted the total number of unduplicated victims using services on September 15, 2009 (NNEDV, 2009). Although this data was only representative of a one day analysis across states, it shows both the need and impact of services for TDV.

Using ‘snap-shot’ data is problematic because it does not accurately depict all the services given over a period of time, but the output can be interpreted as a relief effort toward adolescent victims across the nation. Of the sub-sampled states that processed data on the day the surveillance was done, the majority of the services were given to adolescents. The benefit of this data set is that data for adolescent victims can be isolated because of the way the surveillance was conducted. However, the issue of how each program across the nation is collecting data on adolescent services remains. Although Iowa does not have a mandated code for TDV prevention, the data below shows that the state was in the top three in community programming on that given

day, which may indicate positive community alliances. However, this does not reduce the need for a policy statewide on TDV.

Table 1
Youth Census Day 2009

State*	*% of Youth Victim Population Served for Census Day 2009	Total # Participants in prevention programming for Census Day 2009
Georgia	91%	333
Florida	81%	834
Iowa	65%	1084
Nebraska	48%, 26%	396
New Jersey	70%	600
Ohio	39%, 14%	1091
Rhode Island	67%, 33%	113
Texas	69%	4221

Note. Adapted from National Network to End Domestic Violence (2009).

*Percentage of youth served dictates all ages of children/adolescences who have witnessed DV or were victims and that had been served on the day of the census in that state. Specific teen services in several states that collect such data are listed in **bold**. All participating states listed have TDV policies in place except Iowa.

Comparing some states that collected data on what is categorized as domestic violence rates is useful to understand the conflation issue surrounding age and defining adolescent violence versus adult violence. As stated before, looking at adult DV rates will allow for intervention-based impacts that can affect adolescent rates proactively. Other data, collected by the National Coalition Against Domestic Violence (NCADV) (2005), demonstrates one of the issues that makes age categorization difficult. In this data set the ages are that of the national standard used by the Bureau of Justice with a range of 16-24 years. Also, other problems in that data potentially underestimate DV rates. For example, Nebraska only counted numbers provided by law enforcement, totaling 1667 for the year 2005. An important issue to note with the NCADV data is that Iowa, along with Tennessee, included a separate category for ages 20 and under for reporting DV. However, neither state specifies it as TDV, nor separates it from DV for those under 18. Iowa's 20 and under category rate for 2005 data collection was 652 while

Tennessee's was 7207 (National Coalition Against Domestic Violence [NCADV], 2005). In general, domestic violence rates seem to be on the decline nationally, although this is hard to analyze for TDV due to lack of accurate statistics.

Summary:

- Victimization rates are not being compiled properly for TDV
- The use of "snap-shot" methodology is problematic due to predicting reoccurring rates
- New strategies for collection of data about TDV are needed

Nationwide Curricula on TDV

This section reviews important criteria for developing a teen dating violence curriculum. The socio-ecological model, which examines levels of integration of knowledge from micro to macro levels, serves as a foundation for understanding the multiple levels any effective curriculum must address. Following an explanation of the socio-ecological model, this section provides examples of curricula that are effective at changing attitudes about TDV and those that are effective at reducing incidences of violence among adolescent populations. The curricula that are examined fall under either an evidence- or research-based frame.

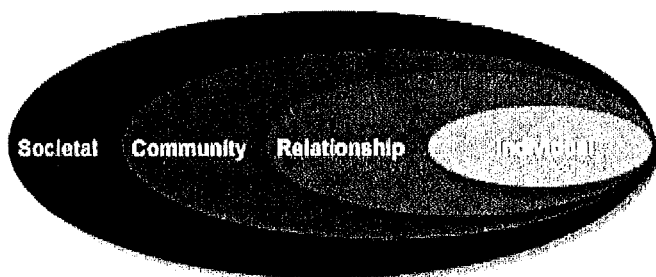
The Centers for Disease Control DELTA Program includes five principles for preventing TDV. These principles include: preventing first-time perpetration and victimization, reducing behavioral risk factors associated with teen dating violence, promoting protective factors such as victim rights, implementing evidence-based strategies into educational programs that incorporate behavior and social change theories and evaluating prevention strategies, and using results to form future curricula (CDC/DELTA, 2009). In addition, there must be a distinction between curricula that uses primary prevention methods and those that use risk reduction methods. Primary prevention methods are designed to reduce first time victimization whereas risk reduction methods target to reduce violent behaviors already used. Some curriculum provides both, but for a program to be most effective and for changing undesired behaviors and TDV victimization, primary prevention methods are most effective. The problem exists with the age that these programs are started. Like previously discussed, due to rates of TDV occurring at younger ages, preventative curricula that are first presented in 7th through 12th grade may not be considered primary prevention.

Socio-ecological Model and Prevention Programming

Preventing TDV requires understanding the factors that influence violence. The CDC use a four-level, socio-ecological model to better understand violence and potential strategies for prevention (CDC/DELTA, 2009). This model considers the connection between individual (micro), relationship/community (meso), and societal factors (macro), and addresses risk factors of victimization from the multiple levels simultaneously. According to the CDC, “prevention programs that encourage the development of multi-level strategies through activities that address all levels of the socio-ecological model are more comprehensive in reaching goals of behavioral changes. It is important that these activities are developmentally appropriate and are conducted over several life stages in adolescent development and education” (CDC/DELTA, 2009, “Program Concepts,” para. 7). Programming based upon this model is more likely to prevent teen dating violence across a lifetime than any single strategy or policy change because it derives all angles of an individual’s learning of social norms and behaviors from peers to their community to societal influences like the media.

Primary prevention curricula used at multiple life stages of adolescence will help reduce TDV rates. Also, attitudes on the subject on an individual level will help influence those on the societal level. Figure 2 shows the micro to macro levels needed to best obtain tangible outcomes for primary prevention of violence. In relation to violence, the socio-ecological model explains the influence of such risk factors and the causes and outcomes given at each level (CDC/DELTA, 2009).

Figure 2
Socio-ecological Model



Note. Adapted from Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, DELTA Program

A description of levels and how prevention programs can be integrated at each level will be explained to show the importance of its use. First, an individual-level influence (micro) is one that is linked to an individual's personal history that will predict their likelihood of either becoming a TDV victim or perpetrator. This is by far the most critical to integrate. This allows for the incorporation of beliefs and attitudes to be adjusted based on the completion of programs that target such change. Change on this level of analysis is seen through internal attitudes and beliefs that once supported TDV and personal isolation from such violent issues. If there is a family history of violence with an individual this level is especially difficult to integrate change into due to normalization patterns. The CDC claims that prevention strategies at this level are often designed "to promote behaviors that support intimate partnerships based on mutual respect and trust" to accommodate these changes. Specific approaches used by educators may include individual education measures and life skills training (CDC/DELTA, 2009, "Program Concepts," para. 8).

Relationship-level influences, considered to be a meso level, are factors outside of the individual but that could increase their risk of violence by influential ideals from outsiders. The individual holds relationships with members of their closest social unit which includes friends/peers, intimate partners, and family. These members influence the individual's attitudes about violence through learn by example techniques and pressure to conform to standards. Prevention strategies at this level may include mentoring and peer programs designed once again to promote intimate partnerships based on mutual respect (CDC/DELTA, 2009). Most attitude changes occur on an individual-level when adolescents learn by example. In other words, the meso level highly influences the micro level and vice-versa. The behavioral norms taught by the highest influential outside groups, or the family members of the individual, are the ones that dictate such behaviors as either acceptable or not.

The community level, another more complex meso level of the model, examines the situation in which social relationships are embedded. This includes social settings such as schools, workplaces, churches and neighborhoods. The characteristics of these settings that can foster victims or perpetrators of violence needs to be identified. Prevention strategies at this level are typically designed to impact the climate, processes, and local policies in one or more of these settings (CDC/DELTA, 2009). Marketing campaigns to change social norms are often used to

foster community climates that promote intimate partnerships among individuals which indirectly brings awareness to the issue.

The problem is that strategies at the meso level do not necessarily prevent violence. Rather, they help in encouraging behavioral changes and community climates that are proactive in the change model. An example of this type of awareness on a meso level of analysis would be community poster campaigns that are displayed on buses or billboards to promote the message of anti-violence. Through these social action activities in a community, change resonates. At this level of analysis, findings show that involvement by adolescents in breaking the cycle of violence is reducing incidences through creating open dialogues within the community to not support such ideas or behaviors. This fosters alliance building with many community agencies and businesses to campaign for anti-violence measures within a given community.

Societal-level influences are larger, more hierarchal macro-level factors, such as gender inequality, religious or cultural belief systems, societal norms (including gender), and social policies. Prevention and intervention strategies at this level typically involve collaborations by multiple anti-violence advocates such as lobbyists, government agencies, national nonprofits, religious affiliates and the like to promote social norms, policies, and laws on anti-violence (CDC/DELTA, 2009). An example of these influences would be lobbying for bills that secure victim rights or mandatory prevention programs in schools enforced by state or federal governments. Integrating change at this highest level will act as a catalyst for the other levels of analysis in the model to create change.

Using the Right Approach: Research-Based versus Evidence-Based Curricula

The best suited form of curriculum for the socio-ecological model is one that is either research-based or evidence-based. In this section, I analyze each type to show its effectiveness in preventing TDV, and conclude with an overview and comparison of two of each type of curricula. Although both research- and evidence-based curricula are valid for measuring change in behaviors on TDV, evidence-based programming integrates the socio-ecological model more thoroughly, thus creating more change on the various levels.

Research-based curriculum is often done by conducting a set of surveys on a given topic to the audience while testing the effectiveness of the variables. This method often includes

practices that are not based on research or theory. Normally original data has not been collected on the topic. Instead, professional knowledge of the topic helps develop ideas. These include practices that professionals have tried and believe are effective and new piloting programs that have not yet been researched. In addition, this method can include practices that were developed based on theory, but for which an insufficient amount of original data have been collected to determine the effectiveness, hence the purpose. Using this method could give the researcher an opportunity to start sampling new data. Lastly, research-based practices do not use the most rigorous (often longitudinally based) study designs (Behavioral Institute [BI], n.d.).

Evidence-based research is conducted over a period of time using rigorous methods of evaluating clearly defined outcomes of a given variable. This process refers to the use of interventions for which systematic empirical studies have proven to be effective for treating it. Observation, enumeration of data, and anecdotal case descriptions are used for validity (BI, n.d.). Also, most of these curricula use longitudinal studies to ensure behavioral changes over time based on the lessons taught. Because of this long and difficult process, far fewer evidence-based curricula exist.

Measuring change in attitudes and beliefs and having an effect at multiple levels of the socio-ecological model is important in both research and evidence-based formats. Most curricula use a method of data collection based on surveys that use a Likert scale or something similar for measure attitudinal changes. These surveys are set up as a pre/post-test to view changes before the lessons are started and then afterward. When responding to a Likert questionnaire item, respondents specify their level of agreement to a statement with the answers ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Likert scales may be subject to misrepresentation for several reasons. For instance, a respondent may try to avoid using extreme response categories [strongly agree/disagree] or will develop survey fatigue and start responding similarly to all questions asked. Although Likert scales only show individual changes, they are very effective measurement tools for viewing change and they can be quantified (Lubke, n.d.).

School boards have sought out to use empirically based measurement tools that are effective in their design of measuring outcomes in regards to curricula. Thus, many schools are moving to the use of evidence-based programs because of the rigorous methods they use. Evidence-based programs may be implemented and incorporated into practice because schools

need to provide evidence to their boards of a program's direct benefits. This type of program is also used because of its effectiveness to measure attitudes directly and over time across multiple developmental lifespan of the adolescents. Schools may opt not to use research-based programs because few studies of their effectiveness exist. Most research-based programs measure outcomes based on qualitative data sets through anecdotal stories and measurements of attitude changes. Often, research-based programs are useful in intervention based on risk reduction for violent behaviors rather than for education and prevention.

In both research- and evidence-based prevention programs, a brief dating violence curriculum is taught to students in a classroom setting. The problem with both types of programming is that they do not provide the level of change in attitudes desired because they do not incorporate a saturation method. A saturation method is a type of rigorous teaching through the use of mandatory designated lesson plans that each curriculum contains. For example, most evidence-based programs are designed for saturation, although they are often not used in their totality. However, if used properly, evidence-based programs are designed to show total saturation of knowledge gained from the materials provided. National and local evaluations of existing formats used based off the evidence-based programs have shown that they are effective in increasing knowledge and changing attitudes related to dating violence (CDC, 2009). Fewer programs have demonstrated an impact on actual levels of dating violence incidences. So the question remains, can dating violence prevention curriculum also decrease violent behavior?

There are various prevention programs that exist nationwide under either evidence or research-based formats. The first section compares two credible research-based curricula: *Love is Not Abuse*, and *Choose Respect*. The next section covers established, rigorously tested programming that is considered evidence based. Below I present information about the only two evidence based TDV curricula that are available, *Safe Dates* and *The Forth R*.

Research-based.

Liz Claiborne Inc. has been working with issues of dating violence and domestic violence since 1991 through a campaign titled *Love Is Not Abuse*. The campaign program's mission is "to raise the level of awareness on teen dating abuse and communicate the vital importance of education to help teens" ((Liz Claiborne Incorporated [LCI], 2011, para. 2). According to their

data, 75% of adolescents believe that learning about dating abuse helps them recognize it. Further, their study found that 84% of parents would be unable to identify if their adolescent was in a violent relationship (LCI, 2011). *Love Is Not Abuse* has goals to increase students' understanding of teen dating abuse, allow students to reach out to a friend or family member, and increase helping behavior among students involved in abusive dating relationships (Love Is Not Abuse [LINA], n.d.).

Love Is Not Abuse is more for integration of risk reduction techniques than for primary prevention strategies, thus making it not solely preventative. For example, this curriculum comes equipped with a safety plan to help adolescents who are victims of violence. This program has tools online and a video to go along with the three lesson curriculum (LINA, n.d.). In addition, the current 3rd edition of the curriculum has been updated to incorporate information on a new type of violence, cyber abuse, in teen dating relationships. As it contains guidance for teachers and parents to help with TDV incidences, it is incorporating the meso level appropriately (LINA, n.d.). The problem with the program is that there is no measurement tool from which to show tangible results and that it does little to integrate societal level influences to the socio-ecological model. The curriculum led directly to the establishment of the National Teen Dating Abuse Helpline, in February 2007. This initiative offers support, information and advocacy to victims in dating abuse relationships as well as concerned friends, parents, teachers, and service providers (LCI, 2011). This shows how a prevention based initiative can translate into intervention measures.

A second research-based curriculum, *Choose Respect*, was created by the CDC as a comprehensive long term strategy to market principles of behavior change in regards to TDV. With a slogan of "Respect: Give it, Get It," it fosters community partnerships through several modes. One mode is through media and social marketing education that allows this program to be accessible to target all levels of the socio-ecological model. An individual can access several tools that will foster their learning about TDV and community leaders can obtain videos, curriculum and measurement tools in order to utilize it in their social setting (CDC/Choose Respect [CR], 2011).

Launched in 2006, the vision of *Choose Respect* was to be one of the first programs to target 11-14 year olds; a primary age for initial prevention of such behaviors to be fostered. The

end results of this program are that “adolescents are inspired to give respect and get respect in relationships (integration of the individual and relational levels) and to gain skills to make other healthy, positive life choices” (CDC/CR, 2011, para. 2). Originally, this program measured success through surveys and statistics provided by the 17 original cities that had pilot projects utilizing the curriculum. In their first annual report in 2007, *Choose Respect* gathered information from each pilot program. One of these cities, Austin, Texas has integrated the curriculum into more than 250 schools and organizations within a year (CDC/CRAR, 2007). Also, the online assessment tools through the interactive website showed that in 2007, more than 2,389 adolescents took the *Choose Respect* quiz. This quiz helps adolescents see what constitutes violent behaviors on a relationship and teaches them prevention techniques. Traffic on the website has increased nearly 60% since the program’s induction in 2006 (CDC/CR, 2011). There are also posters that can be downloaded and displayed that help spread the anti-violence message in the community (meso level integration).

Through this initiative, in 2006, the first-ever National Teen Dating Violence Awareness Week was held, which reflected a new nationwide proposal to increase public awareness and education of the prevalence of teen dating violence among teens (CDC/CR, 2011). Between 2007-09, a number of state senators from the states that conducted the pilot projects, again joined in sponsoring resolutions calling for the first week in February to be designated "National Teen Dating Violence Awareness and Prevention Week" (CDC/CR, 2011). The macro level byproducts of the campaign were an increase in credibility for *Choose Respect* and demonstrating that TDV is a national problem. The week in February also allows adolescents a chance to put their social action agendas into play within their communities to promote anti-violence measures, which is empowering to them. Overall, *Choose Respect* is a very comprehensive research-based initiative with multiple angles from which to choose.

Evidence-based.

“*Safe Dates* is the only evidence-based dating violence prevention program listed in the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration’s National Registry of Evidence-Based Programs and Practices for its strength of evidence and ease of replication” (Start Strong Teens [SST], n.d., para. 6). *Safe Dates* was used in a research project in 14 North Carolina public schools with eight and ninth grade students using a rigorous experimental design. The program

was found to be effective in both preventing and reducing perpetration among adolescents already using violence against their dates (SST, n.d.). It is designed to integrate most of the levels of the socio-ecological model, with emphasis on the individual, relationship and community levels. “Adolescents participating in the program reported less acceptance of dating violent behaviors, stronger communication and anger management skills, less usage of gender stereotypes, and a greater awareness of community services for dating abuse” (Hazelden, n.d., p. 3). These areas mentioned are all part of the session topics of the curriculum.

Through use of a longitudinal study, researchers studied the same group of students four years after implementation and found that “students that participated in the *Safe Dates* program reported 56% to 92% less physical, serious physical, and sexual dating violence victimization and perpetration than teens that did not participate in *Safe Dates*” (Hazelden, n.d., p. 3). This is a prime example of why this curriculum is considered to be the most effective one available and what makes it evidential. Another key factor about *Safe Dates* is that the program has been found to be equally effective for males and females and for all racial backgrounds because these variables also had been tested (Kendall & Marzano, 2000).

The curriculum is set up as a nine-session program with lessons on gender stereotyping to identifying types of abuse. Each session is designed to fit various scheduling formats (e.g., daily or weekly programs). Handouts are included with each session and consist of visual guides and interactive exercises based on the various topics (Hazelden, n.d.). Using *Safe Dates* will meet national academic standards from Health Education to Life Skills (Kendall & Marzano, 2000). The downfall is that the curriculum is not very compatible outside social sciences disciplines.

The Iowa Coalition Against Sexual Assault (IACASA) has approved the use of *Safe Dates* for prevention advocates to use across the state in their communities because of its known effectiveness and to standardize the state’s domestic and sexual violence (DV/SA) agencies TDV prevention programming. In addition, IACASA has funded the curriculum to all participating agencies across Iowa. One drawback is that prevention is not funded in all victim services agencies across Iowa nor is the curriculum accepted into all schools that have a certified prevention advocate from a DV/SA agency in the state. However, this is a step in a positive direction in regards to getting quality TDV prevention education into schools with a low cost to the school districts.

The second evidence-based curriculum is a school-based universal prevention program originated in Canada titled *The Fourth R*. Unlike *Safe Dates*, which is primarily used in health and social science classrooms in middle and high school, a universal program is one in which can be utilized in many academic areas. The conception of this program was based on integrating a new discipline area of “Relationships” to the foundations of traditional educational programming, Reading, wRiting and aRithmetic. “The program was rigorously evaluated as part of a 20-school Randomized Controlled Trial over 2.5 years” (SST, n.d., “Fourth R,” para. 1). This longitudinal approach helped ensure its effectiveness at preventing violent interpersonal behaviors. It is also found to be a highly effective prevention program that integrates the entire socio-ecological model because of its universal compatibility through multi-leveled approaches.

The Fourth R program was designed to comply with both the United States and Canadian provincial academic standards. The Canadian provincial’s goal is to see that relationship knowledge should be taught in the same way as reading, writing, and arithmetic. The provincial states “this curriculum consists of lessons that meet the Ontario Ministry of Education’s learning expectations for eighth and ninth grade health education and Grade nine through twelve English, and the outcomes for other courses in other provinces. The program is taught in the classroom using a thematic approach to reduce risk behaviors by using many areas of disciplines connected together and integrated them into a theme” (Youth Relationships [YR], 2008, para. 3).

One area that this curriculum explores that other TDV programs do not is on substance abuse. This is because there is a link between dating violence and use of drugs. “*The Fourth R* is a 21-lesson interdisciplinary skill-based curriculum that promotes healthy relationships and targets violence, high-risk sexual behavior, and substance use among adolescents” (SST, n.d., para. 2). Importantly, many of these adolescent risk behaviors overlap because they occur in the context of relationships. *The Fourth R* program addresses these adolescent risk behaviors by “focusing on relationship goals and challenges that influence their decision-making” (YR, 2008, para. 4).

In addition to the classroom component, *The Fourth R* seeks to involve the school and community in delivering positive messages to adolescents, which fosters the meso level of the socio-ecological model. Teachers are also engaged through the delivery of the program. Students learn through peer mentoring, and role modeling of appropriate behaviors through activities that

focus on skills development. Another positive component about this curriculum is that parents are engaged through outreach and communication about the program. This approach helps with the development of relational ties and promotes parent education as well (YR, 2008). Finally, these strategies help make alliances between community agencies and the school community to increase access to resources and services for adolescents that are in a TDV situation.

Summary:

- The use of the socio-ecological model in prevention curriculum is critical for changes needed surrounding TDV
- Evidence-based research practices are the best in programming due to saturation of knowledge gained
- Research-based curriculum are the most commonly created and used types available on TDV
- Most curriculum evaluations measure outcomes from survey data

State TDV Policies: Effectiveness of Intervention and Prevention Measures

The lack of state policies and laws that would protect adolescents leads to a lack of statistics on TDV. Specifically, many states do not include the language of ‘dating’ into their codes to protect adolescents. This makes it very difficult to obtain a proper estimate of victims in danger because they are simply not allowed to use legal services or are not given proper jargon in the codes for their type of relationships. This can also work against policy measures that would warrant a school-based dating violence policy be put in place. The effectiveness of developing new criteria for examining TDV intervention solutions has been studied by *Break the Cycle*, an advocacy organization. They have given all 50 states grade reports depending on how they rank in serving adolescents in TDV laws (Break the Cycle [BTC], 2010). This section summarizes Iowa’s weaknesses and provides examples from more effective state initiatives from New Jersey, Tennessee, Rhode Island and Virginia.

The current language of Iowa’s statutes limits the state’s ability to have a comprehensive policy on TDV intervention and prevention. For instance, Iowa’s Domestic Violence Law by Section 708.2A currently covers those subjects involved in relationships where the parties are involved in one of the following situations: cohabitating intimately within the past year, married

parties, persons with minor children together, people that are divorced, people that are blood related (mom, dad, son, daughter), over 18, and living together at the time or within the past year (Iowa Courts [IC], 2011). This does not leave much room for the situation of two consenting adolescents in a relationship who do not live together nor have children. Also, the Iowa DV statute does not include the right for a minor to obtain a protective order without a parent or guardian to sign for it, which can be a major issue and barrier to protection (IC, 2011). A study conducted by *Break the Cycle* (2010) gave Iowa a 'C' as far as service effectiveness for adolescent victims of violence (BTC, 2010). Only some of the current states with teen dating violence policies, only some states have written in their codes that minors can obtain a protective order. This is very ineffective if 'true' protection is intended through policy initiatives.

In each of the states that have TDV policies, the language of the TDV bill usually addresses one or more of the following in regards to a school district's dating violence policy: a definition of dating violence, safety planning, enforcement of protective orders, school-based alternatives to protective orders, training for teachers and administrators, counseling for affected students, and awareness education for students and parents. However, the language designated by the bills in regards to preventing TDV is problematic. Of the states that have TDV policies, not all bills contain language about both developing policies in schools and education pieces; it is usually one or the other or there is vagueness on one piece. For example, in New Jersey the bill states the school must have guidelines to responding to incidences and make clear the understanding of the behavior being prohibited. Also included must be strategies for prevention through education. However, the New Jersey bill does not state specifics on what type of education is to be incorporated and at what level of education or subject area (New Jersey General Assembly [NJGA], 2010).

Most states either recommend or require (but with little guidance as to where in the curriculum) that the state's Board of Education incorporate dating violence prevention education into schools. Most states also do not include that TDV curriculum has to be an already developed, effectively measured program, like *Safe Dates*, but solely that education on the topic is necessary or recommended. This also does not guarantee that all students in the district will be taught about TDV if they do not take the proper courses in which the bill integrates the TDV prevention piece. Because of this the policy fails to be holistic in responses to the issue. Most

bills put curriculum on TDV into a health education section, but some only require a healthy relationships unit, which may not focus on violent aspects in a relationship. For instance in Tennessee, bill T.C.A. 49-1-220 solely “urges a curriculum on teen dating violence but since there is no uniform way of tracking statistics on it and it lacks an intervention component, they utilize the bullying initiative T.C.A. 49-6-1015 to advocate dating violence through as well” (nasbe.org, 2010, para. 8). The policy is under the umbrella of Injury and Violence Prevention Education and the standards state an urge for the Department of Education to develop sexual violence awareness curriculum that contains a section on dating violence awareness (nasbe.org, 2010).

Model States for Policy

Rhode Island has what is considered to be the most effective bill on TDV prevention and intervention out of all states that have such a bill enacted. For this reason, this section of explanation of their policy on TDV is to be viewed as one that Iowa could mirror for their future initiative. One reason why Rhode Island is a model state for TDV initiatives is its bill on school policies is comprehensive, incorporating all issues from teacher training education to victim safety planning in the school policy. Also, the language of their statute surrounding dating violence victim remedies incorporates the right to petition for a protective order as a minor of dating abuse, unlike many states with bills. Rhode Island received an ‘A’ based off the *Break the Cycle’s* State Grade Reports analysis of effectiveness of policy to TDV prevention and intervention measures (BTC, 2010).

Rhode Island’s bill on TDV measures was backed by many legislators and the Rhode Island Coalition Against Domestic Violence (RICADV) and was enacted in 2007. The bill was named after a victim in the state that was murdered by her boyfriend. The Lindsay Ann Burke Act requires that each school district in RI grades 7-12, teach teen dating violence awareness education in the health curriculum, adopt a policy addressing TDV, and provide TDV training annually to new staff and administrators. The law is preventative in that it mandates teen dating violence education in public schools, thereby giving adolescents information about how to recognize abuse, how to access resources, and hopefully preventing future incidents of abuse. The training for administrators also covers the dynamics of abuse, resources, and how to respond

if TDV happens on school grounds, so there are some intervention aspects in the training and in the policy itself (Rhode Island Department of Education [ride.ri.gov], n.d.).

However one drawback to the Lindsay Ann Burke law is that it does not mandate the use of a specific curriculum for prevention and it covers curriculum only mandated in health classes. It does identify which aspects of teen dating violence and healthy relationships must be addressed (warning signs, dynamics, healthy relationships, and resources) and at what level of education (ride.ri.gov, n.d.). Each school district has discretion on how it will address these aspects. Advocates at RICADV determined that it is a positive aspect of Rhode Island's law that it did not name one curriculum throughout the state. Their stance is justified by the argument that for each district there is differing issues to be addressed surrounding TDV so if a school just does one program and thinks they are doing enough and can simply check it off their list, this would not be doing true prevention (J. Seitz, personal communication, July 1, 2010).

Education alone is not going to end TDV. Some schools are using *The Fourth R* and *Safe Dates*, and others are doing one to two classroom sessions on TDV; it varies greatly by district. The Rhode Island Department of Education has added a question to their annual school statistics form regarding the Burke Act. One area was to assess whether all schools had developed an education policy addressing TDV and so far they all have. However, since the law is still fairly new, no data demonstrating its effectiveness is determined yet. Thus, policy makers would argue that it cannot be considered a model policy until its effectiveness is proven. RICADV is still working with schools to make sure they have the supports they need to implement all pieces of the law. There is some research being done by a local university on effectiveness measurements to the bill.

The Rhode Island state *Youth Risk Behaviors Survey* (2009) shows that dating violence rates have not changed since the bill's enactment. In 2007, the same year the bill was enacted, rates went up and have stayed similar in violence rates for questions pertaining to physical violence and forced sex thereafter when administered biannually (although data for 2011 is not configured yet) (health.ri.gov, 2009). However, this is not seen as a direct indicator of ineffectiveness of the bill's components, but rather as an indicator of higher response rates due to having more education about the topic.

Similarly, Virginia also saw little change after passing an amendment that mirrored that of Rhode Island's. Furthermore, the legislation that passed in Virginia could not realistically be expected to impact rates anytime soon, similar to Rhode Island's bill enacted that same year. The bill develops curriculum guidelines for teaching TDV, but like most states, does not mandate a certain curriculum. The state's Board of Education decision was based on the principle that it goes against sound prevention practices of promoting cultural relevance and avoiding overly simplified "program-in-a-box" solutions to a very complex problem. For this reason, Virginia has very intentionally avoided the use of a uniform curriculum for teen dating violence prevention. Instead, they favor customized approaches built up from adolescents in a given setting or area. This can be done by using a public health-oriented community mobilization approach, among others (Virginia Injury and Violence Prevention Education [VIVPE], 2011). An initiative introduced and enacted in Virginia in 2011 titled SB 906 under Chapter 634 requires the Standards of Learning objectives related to dating violence and the characteristics of abusive relationships to be taught at least once during middle school and at least twice during high school (National Conference of State Legislatures [ncsl.org], 2011).

Summary:

- The states with both an intervention and prevention piece in their bill are the most effective
- Vague language of bills creates a problem in what is interpreted as important about TDV
- Incorporation of TDV reporting systems, such as *Youth Risk Behavioral Surveys*, are needed to track rates of TDV

Study of TDV in Iowa-Pilot Survey

In order to illustrate that Iowa has rates of TDV that need to be addressed and to determine appropriate questions to measure TDV, a survey was developed as part of this report. The purpose was to develop possible survey questions that could be incorporated into a state-based surveillance system in Iowa. The survey was administered at two rural Story County high schools (School A and School B will be used to keep information confidential) with a target population of 9th and 10th grade students. The final sample included 40 students, 23 girls and 17 boys. About half (19) were 9th graders, and 18 were 10th graders, with 3 who did not include

their class standing (because the column on the survey asked for both age and grade). Table 2 describes the characteristics of the total sample broken down by gender, grade, and school.

Table 2
Survey Sample Characteristics

Variable	School A	School B	Total
Girls	9	14	23
Boys	7	10	17
9 th Grade	8	11	19
10 th Grade	5	13	18

(N=40)

School A had 16 total participants out of a 9th and 10th grade population of approximately 80 students. School B had 24 survey participants out of a total 9th and 10th grade population of approximately 130 students. Participants were gathered from School A through communication of a letter sent home to parents, while School B was done through an email to the parents of all 9th and 10th grade students. In both schools, parents personal contact information was never given to the researcher but rather survey information was sent directly from the counseling department secretaries. The researcher did document the names of the parents to their student that consented to participate and validated the lists with the schools prior to dispersing the surveys.

The researcher distributed the surveys in person on one given day at each participating school; School A in February 2011 and School B in April 2011. In each case, the survey was administered to the students in an assembly and only those students whose parents had signed consent documents participated. A consent form was also done in person with the students the day of the survey with the given option for them to withdraw. All consent forms were kept confidential and the survey was anonymous. The questionnaire was mixed format with open and closed-ended questions to provide both qualitative and quantitative results. The results enumerated were based on rates from sets of Likert questions that served to measure students' beliefs and behaviors about TDV. The survey questionnaire is in Appendix A and the Institutional Review Board approval form is in Appendix C.

The pilot survey will be used to consider possible intervention measures in Iowa schools. Also, since the bi-annual *Iowa Youth Survey* lacks a current set of direct questions on TDV, this pilot survey tool is designed to test questions that could be added to it for the future so rates of TDV can be collected statewide. The goal is to suggest to state agencies such as the Iowa Department of Public Health (IDPH) the need to measure amounts of TDV among adolescents in the state. The *Iowa Youth Survey*, a survey distributed by IDPH and the Iowa Department of Education, measures risky behaviors among adolescents. Such measures currently ask about violent or aggressive behavior in regards to use of weapons or in relation to bullying behaviors both at home and in school, not about intimate relationship-based violence.

Witnessing Violent Behaviors Survey Questions

One part of the pilot survey conducted was designed to show levels of a variety of behaviors among peers that may be at risk for victimization. This was done by asking questions about the likelihood those respondents had witnessed such incidences. The questions asked how likely it is that teens experienced the following: hearing name-calling, viewing someone getting hit by a partner, not allowing their partner to hang out with friends, viewing sexually harassing behavior and seeing someone stealing things from their partner. Response categories have the scale of such an incident being ‘very likely’, to a middle ground of ‘fairly likely’ and also including the response of ‘not likely at all’ to choose from. All questions were answered by all 40 participants, so the percentages are tallied to 100% in the table to reflect that. However, some response categories to certain questions had no one choose that response, and those are indicated with a ‘0’ in the table. Responses to these five questions on behaviors are summarized in Table 3, which shows the results from all of the categories of questions for both sexes and a total of 40 participants (see Appendix A for questions).

Table 3
Behaviors Questions Responses

Categories	Very Likely	Likely	Fairly Likely	Not Likely	Not Likely At All
Name-call	0 (0%)	6 (15%)	15(37.5%)	14 (35%)	5(12.5%)
Hitting	0 (0%)	2 (5%)	6 (15%)	15(37.5%)	17(42.5%)
Friends	3 (7.5%)	8 (20%)	9 (22.5%)	16 (40%)	4 (10%)
Harassing	2 (5%)	7(17.5%)	2 (5%)	17(42.5%)	12 (30%)
Stealing	2 (5%)	2 (5%)	2 (5%)	21(52.5%)	13(32.5%)

(N=40)

A couple of questions about behaviors yielded interesting and varied results worth explaining. For instance, in one question, *How likely is it for you to see someone steal money or things from their boyfriend/girlfriend?* (see Table 3, 'stealing' category), 21 participants, or 52.2%, responded that it was 'not likely'. The fact that several students agreed that seeing someone stealing money from a boyfriend/girlfriend was either 'very likely', 'fairly likely,' or 'likely', along with the idea that those who answered 'not too likely' chose not to answer 'not likely at all' means that students are seeing this kind of behavior.

Yet another question asking, *How likely is it for you to hear someone being called a name or being criticized/yelled at by their boyfriend/girlfriend?*, (see Table 3- 'name-call' category) resulted in a 37.5% response, which is 15 out of 40 participants, in the category of 'fairly likely'. This shows that this particular type of behavior is indeed something witnessed by peers in a school environment. These results correlate with other researchers' conclusions that what is considered to be emotional abuse is one of the most normative behaviors in an abusive relationship. One aspect with merely asking this type of question is that it cannot be associated with whether these peers identify this type of behavior as abusive or not (although in the descriptive of the survey it states 'observing peers violent behaviors' so it is preconceived as such).

Analyzing the data separately by sex (results in Tables 4 and 5) indicated a couple of differences between the TDV behaviors males and females reported witnessing. For example, in the question *How likely is it for you to see someone be sexually harassing towards their boyfriend/girlfriend* ("Harassing"), 11.8% of males (which is 2 out of 17 participants) said 'very likely', whereas females had no responses in this category. The 'fairly likely' response for males

was at 0, whereas the females had 2 (or 8.7%). This indicates that males in my sample were more likely to witness such a behavior. Table 4 below shows the responses to this question.

Table 4
Harassing Category for Sex Differences in Behaviors

Response		Female	Male
Harassing	Very Likely	0 (0%)	2 (11.8%)
	Likely	5 (21.7%)	2 (11.8%)
	Fairly Likely	2 (8.7%)	0 (0%)
	Not Likely	10 (43.5%)	7 (41.2%)
	Not Likely At All	6(26.1%)	6 (35.3%)
Total		23(100.0%)	17(100.0%)

(N=40)

Yet another question in the behaviors section that saw sex differences was *How likely is it for you to hear someone being called a name or being criticized/yelled at by their boyfriend/girlfriend* (“Name-call”). Results for males showed that 8 (47.1%) responded as ‘not likely’, whereas 11 of 23 females (47.8%) chose ‘fairly likely’ (see Table 5 ‘name-call’). All other results from the behaviors questions based on sex differentials are listed in Appendix B.

Table 5
Name-call Category for Sex Differences in Behaviors

Response		Female	Male
Name-call	Likely	3 (13.0%)	3 (17.6%)
	Fairly Likely	11 (47.8%)	4 (23.5%)
	Not Likely	6 (26.1%)	8 (47.1%)
	Not Likely At All	3 (13.0%)	2 (11.8%)
	Total	23(100.0%)	17(100.0%)

(N=40)

In sum, there were varied results from all five of the questions about behaviors respondents had witnessed, and the two I focused showed enough variation to be considered for inclusion on the *Iowa Youth Survey*.

Indication of Beliefs on TDV Survey Questions

Another section of the pilot survey was to have participants respond about on their personal beliefs about TDV. This was done through the use of five Likert scaled questions where respondents chose a range from 'strongly agree', to a middle ground of 'neutral', meaning they hold little beliefs or do not know what they believe, and ending with 'strongly disagree'. Questions asked a similar category of abuse types ranging from emotional, physical, sexual and verbal. Questions asked if it is acceptable to hit someone, if emotional neglect is common, if it is normal for a partner to always know where their boyfriend/girlfriend is, if it is normal for someone to expect sex and finally if they feel pressure from peers to be in a relationship. Once again there were no non-responses to the questions, so the percentages are tallied to 100% in the table to reflect that.

There were a couple of questions about beliefs that yielded interesting and varied results worth explaining. For example, one question asking whether the teens agreed that *If a boyfriend/girlfriend hits their partner it may be because they deserved it*, showed results at 65% 'strongly disagree' (26 of 40) and that no participants 'agreed' with this statement (See Table 6- 'hit' category). This shows that these adolescents do not believe in accepting physical abuse in a relationship. However, there were still 10% (4) of the participants who responded to this question with a 'neutral' viewpoint on the scale.

Another question that had varied results was that asking opinions about whether *Emotional neglect often occurs in a dating relationship*. In this case, 42.5% (17 out of 40) of the participants chose a 'neutral' answer (See Table 6- 'emotional' category). Not knowing what constitutes as emotional neglect or abuse in a dating relationship shows that there is a possible need to educate adolescents on this type of abuse, especially because it is known to be the most frequent type. Also, an interesting finding is that 22.5% (9) 'agreed' that this often happens in a relationship. This is about half the size of that of the 'neutral' category, but shows variance in the

level of beliefs about emotional abuse. Table 6 below shows the results from all of the categories of questions measuring beliefs about TDV (see Appendix A for questions).

Table 6
Beliefs

Categories	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Acceptable	15(37.5%)	20(50%)	13(32.5%)	15(37.5%)	1 (2.5%)
Emotional	5 (12.5%)	9(22.5%)	17(42.5%)	9(22.5%)	0 (0%)
Hit	26 (65%)	10 (25%)	4 (10%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Pressure	15(37.5%)	8 (20%)	8 (20%)	18(45%)	15(37.5%)
Sexual	15(37.5%)	9(22.5%)	9(22.5%)	7(17.5%)	0 (0%)

(N=40)

When looking at gender differences for this set of questions about beliefs there were clear distinctions in how females and males viewed certain issues relating to intimate violence. One question in particular that had a wide range of differences in results was about the question *If a boyfriend/girlfriend hits their partner it may be because they deserved it*. Of the males, 47.1% (8) chose ‘strongly disagree’, compared to 78.3% of the females (18 of 23). Only 3 females, a mere 13%, chose ‘disagree’ rank, compared to 41.2% of males (7 of 17). It appears that females in this sample were more likely than males to believe that hitting a partner is wrong (see Table 7 ‘hit’). It is clear that there were varied results from this set of questions both in regards to type of abuse and sex. The complete set of results about sex differences in beliefs can be viewed in Appendix B. Overall, these questions show potential for inclusion on a future survey intended to measure beliefs about violent behaviors among dating partners.

Table 7
Hit Category for Sex Differences in Beliefs

Response	Female	Male
Hit		
Strongly Disagree	18 (78.3%)	8(47.1%)
Disagree	3 (13.0%)	7 (41.2%)
Neutral	2 (8.7%)	2 (11.8%)
Total	23(100.0%)	17(100.0%)

(N=40)

Qualitative Result Questions

A final portion of the survey asked four open-ended questions including: whether teens believed TDV was an issue, what the schools could do to solve it, if they knew resources to get help, and how they felt about TDV. Although a statewide survey would not ask qualitative questions, pilot survey results from the four questions can help researchers understand how to measure TDV. The open-ended responses showed the teens' lack of understanding about how to get resources for help with such an issue. Results also concluded that most participants did not believe TDV is an issue in their school, although the responses to the close-ended questions seem to contradict that conclusion.

For example, one of the open-ended questions on the survey asked if participants believe TDV is a problem in their school and if so how it could be solved. School A had 15 of 16 answers of "no" indicating TDV is not a problem in their school and only one "yes." School B had 22 out of 24 "no" answers to the question about school levels of TDV and 2 "yes" answers. No one indicated under this question what the school could do to solve any such issues. However, the lack of "yes" answers from the open-ended questions does not coincide with the responses to the closed-ended questions that do show such a phenomenon occurring in the two participating schools.

Another qualitative question on the pilot survey was one that asked participants to rank in numerical order of preference what a victim should do to get help, and included options of 'telling a friend', 'telling a parent', 'telling a professional' or an option of 'other.' In School A, 8 of the 16 participants (half), said that their number one preference for a victim would be to 'tell a friend', while 5 answered that their preference for victims was to tell both 'a parent' and 'a professional'. In the 'other' category two respondents wrote "pray" and "talk with partner" in their rank order. In School B, 'telling a professional' only had one top rank while 'telling a friend' had 13 of the 24 participants ranking it as number one. There were 8 who indicated to 'tell a parent,' and under the 'other' category replies were 'tell a pastor' and 'tell my brother.' An error occurred in this set of answers because respondents checked some of the answers instead of ranking them, but I counted a tallied score for each answer provided.

Overall, the responses from all ten sets of Likert type questions about the different categories of abuse could be a useful tool in configuring questions for a standard adolescent behavioral survey designed to measure dating violent behaviors and attitudes among adolescents. The results from the open-ended questions also indicate that these two schools mirror what the statistics nationwide show about TDV issues in schools; teens often talk to friends instead of professionals or their parents and they do not believe TDV is a problem in school. However, overall this study shows the need for further legislation requiring schools to incorporate both an intervention and prevention piece into action to help adolescents further understand the impacts of this issue in interpersonal relationship development.

Summary:

- Surveying attitudes about TDV needs to be incorporated on the *Iowa Youth Survey*
- Pilot survey results indicated potentially effective questions for measuring attitudes and beliefs about TDV in Iowa
- Pilot survey results indicated teens witness TDV among their peers
- Pilot survey results indicated the lack of knowledge from teens about TDV

Conclusion- Iowa Recommendation

In analyzing data on TDV it was evident that there are few uniform ways that states have to track rates of violence. This is due to several dilemmas, ranging from language of bills and codes to confidentiality issues surrounding minors to the exclusion of prevention measures. The major change that is needed in order to produce better outcomes for adolescent victims is to create a uniform system across the nation. Currently, the Center for Disease Control and Prevention conducts an annual survey of youth in pilot programs, schools and agencies that serve adolescent populations titled the *Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance Survey* (YRBSS). This effort needs to be expanded and mandated across the nation or through the use of state surveillance systems like the *Iowa Youth Survey*. A suggestion for a long term strategic plan would be to conduct a longitudinal study of the effectiveness of TDV prevention programming in several pilot programs in the state. The Iowa Department of Education and the Iowa Department of Public Health (IDPH) need to create new tracking databases as mandated criteria in order to

collect accurate depictions of dating violence because the current method is not mandatory in all counties and does not track only TDV.

By looking at nationwide statistics, methods for data collection, current curricula used and policies in place on TDV, each component of this report is designated to help analyze what Iowa should do to create a bill intended to combat TDV. As a result from each component of the document's research, the following changes are suggested from the analysis. This is based from other states that have policies in both a preventative and intervention basis and is provided to policy making agencies in Iowa such as IDPH and the Iowa Coalition Against Domestic Violence to include as part of the Iowa policy initiative for TDV. Overall, impacting TDV implementation for the state of Iowa through conclusive research and data collection from supporting entities will foster an avenue of great productivity for the fight against teen dating violence. Based on the report conducted recommendations are as follows:

1. As shown, the states that have legal protections for minors have a more holistic approach to their policies on TDV for direct impacts on adolescent victimization. This intervention measure goes hand in hand with prevention and should be something Iowa considers changing. The recommendation would be to allow minors in Iowa to petition for Protective Orders (POs) on their own behalf, and explicitly describe the procedure for doing so for both the victims and professionals and to allow courts to issue POs against minors.
2. The policy about TDV in Iowa currently being lobbied leaves decisions about implementation of prevention programs up to each school district, but this study has shown that advocating for mandatory state-wide education measures based on primary prevention methods of preventing TDV alongside intervention are best practice methods and should be mirrored in Iowa.
3. The TDV pilot survey conducted for this report can be used to generate a uniform way of collecting data about TDV rates across Iowa and potential questions can be used on the *Iowa Youth Survey*.

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Appendix A

Teen Dating Violence Youth Survey

School _____ Sex _____ Age _____

Grade _____

Please circle the scale letter that indicates your beliefs about teen dating violence on the following questions:

Scale: SD= Strongly Disagree D= Disagree N= Neutral A= Agree SA= Strongly Agree

1. Emotional neglect often occurs in a dating relationship.

SD D N A SA

2. It is acceptable for a boyfriend/girlfriend to know where their partner is all the time.

SD D N A SA

3. If a boyfriend/girlfriend hits their partner it may be because they deserved it.

SD D N A SA

4. It is normal for a partner to expect sexual acts in a relationship.

SD D N A SA

5. There is great pressure to be in a dating relationship for teens.

SD D N A SA

Please circle the scale letter that indicates your observations of peers violent behaviors based on the following questions:

Scale: VL=Very Likely L=Likely FL=Fairly Likely NL=Not too Likely NLA=Not Likely At All

1. How likely is it for you to hear someone being called a name or being criticized/yelled at by their boyfriend/girlfriend?

VL L FL NL NLA

2. How likely is it for you to see someone get hit or something be thrown at them by their boyfriend/girlfriend?

VL L FL NL NLA

3. How likely is it for you to notice a friend/peer was not allowed to hang with their friends or be involved at school?

VL L FL NL NLA

4. How likely is it for you to see someone be sexually harassing towards their boyfriend/girlfriend?

VL L FL NL NLA

5. How likely is it for you to see someone steal money or things from their boyfriend/girlfriend?

VL L FL NL NLA

In the last set of questions, please provide YES/NO and ranking answers based on your beliefs and provide a written example to answer the question if applicable.

1. Do you believe that teen dating violence is a problem in your school? Circle: 1. YES or 2. NO

If yes, how do you think it can be solved?

2. Do you know how to keep someone [including yourself] from becoming a victim of teen dating violence? Circle: 1. YES or 2. NO Please explain one thing.

3. What should a victim of teen dating violence do? Please rank 1 being the first to 4 being the last thing. If you either do not agree with any of these or have other ideas, please state under 'other' and rank.

Tell a professional (teacher, advocate, counselor, etc) _____

Tell/Ask a friend for advice _____

Talk to a parent _____

Other: Specify (may provide more than one answer) _____

4. Explain how you feel about the issue of teen dating violence.

Thank you for participating in this research project about teen dating violence!

Appendix B

Behaviors Category by Sex Responses

		Sex		Total
Response		Female	Male	
Name-call	Likely	3(13.0%)	3(17.6%)	15.0%
	Fairly Likely	11(47.8%)	4(23.5%)	37.5%
	Not Likely	6 (26.1%)	8(47.1%)	35.0%
	Not Likely At All	3(13.0%)	2 (11.8%)	12.5%
N=40	Total	23(100.0%)	17(100.0%)	40(100.0%)

		Sex		Total
Response		F	M	
Friends	VL	1 (4.3%)	2(11.8%)	7.5%
	L	5 (21.7%)	3(17.6%)	20.0%
	FL	6(26.1%)	3(17.6%)	22.5%
	NL	9 (39.1%)	9 (41.2%)	40.0%
	NLA	2 (8.7%)	2 (11.8%)	10.0%
N=40	Total	23(100.0%)	17(100.0%)	100.0%

		Sex		Total
Response		F	M	
Hitting	L	1 (4.3%)	2 (5.9%)	5.0%
	FL	3 (13.0%)	3(17.6%)	15.0%
	NL	10(43.5%)	5(29.4%)	37.5%
	NLA	9(39.1%)	8(47.1%)	42.5%
N=40	Total	23(100.0%)	17(100.0%)	100.0%

Response		Sex		Total
		F	M	
Stealing	VL	1 (4.3%)	1 (5.9%)	5.0%
	L	2 (8.7%)	0 (0%)	5.0%
	FL	2 (8.7%)	0(0%)	5.0%
	NL	13(56.5%)	8(47.1%)	52.5%
	NLA	5(21.7%)	8(47.1%)	32.5%
N=40	Total	23(100.0%)	17(100.0%)	100.0%

Response		Sex		Total
		F	M	
Harassing	VL	0 (0%)	2(11.8%)	5.0%
	L	5(21.7%)	2(11.8%)	17.5%
	FL	2 (8.7%)	0 (0%)	5.0%
	NL	10(43.5%)	7(41.2%)	42.5%
	NLA	6(26.1%)	6(35.3%)	30.0%
N= 40	Total	23(100.0%)	17(100.0%)	100.0%

Beliefs Category by Sex Responses

Response		Sex		Total
		F	M	
Sexual	Strongly Disagree	12(52.2%)	3(17.6%)	37.5%
	Disagree	4(17.4%)	5(29.4%)	22.5%
	Neutral	3(13.0%)	6(35.3%)	22.5%
	Agree	4(17.4%)	3(17.6%)	17.5%
N=40	Total	23(100.0%)	17(100.0%)	100.0%

Response

		Sex		Total
		F	M	
Pressure	SD	2 (8.7%)	1 (5.9%)	7.5%
	D	4 (17.4%)	4 (23.5%)	20.0%
	N	4 (17.4%)	4 (23.5%)	20.0%
	A	11(47.8%)	7 (41.2%)	45.0%
	SA	2 (8.7%)	1 (5.9%)	7.5%
N=40	Total	23(100.0%)	17(100.0%)	100.0%

Response

		Sex		Total
		F	M	
Hit	SD	18(78.3%)	8 (47.1%)	65.0%
	D	3(13.0%)	7 (41.2%)	25.0%
	N	2 (8.7%)	2 (11.8%)	10.0%
	A	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0%
	SA	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0%
N=40	Total	23(100.0%)	17(100.0%)	100.0%

Response

		Sex		Total
		F	M	
Emotional	SD	3 (13.0%)	2 (11.8%)	12.5%
	D	3 (13.0%)	6 (35.3%)	22.5%
	N	12 (52.2%)	4 (29.4%)	42.5%
	A	5 (21.7%)	4 (23.5%)	22.5%
	SA	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0%
N=40	Total	23(100.0%)	17(100.0%)	100.0%

Response

		Sex		Total
		F	M	
Acceptable	SD	2 (8.7%)	1 (5.9%)	7.5%
	D	12 (52.2%)	8 (47.1%)	50.0%
	N	7 (30.4%)	6 (35.3%)	32.5%
	A	2 (8.7%)	1 (5.9%)	7.5%
	SA	0 (0%)	1 (5.9%)	2.5%
N=40	Total	23(100.0%)	17(100.0%)	100.0%

Appendix C

IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Institutional Review Board
Office of Research Assurances
Vice President for Research
1138 Pearson Hall
Ames, Iowa 50011-2207
515 294-4566
FAX 515 294-4267

Date: 1/7/2011

To: Alysa Mozak
1813 Duff Ave
Ames, IA 50010

CC: Dr. Anastasia H Prokos
310 East Hall

From: Office for Responsible Research

Title: Teen Dating Violence Survey

IRB Num: 10-518

Approval Date: 1/7/2011

Continuing Review Date: 12/20/2011

Submission Type: New

Review Type: Full
Committee

The project referenced above has received approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Iowa State University. Please refer to the IRB ID number shown above in all correspondence regarding this study.

Your study has been approved according to the dates shown above. To ensure compliance with federal regulations (45 CFR 46 & 21 CFR 56), please be sure to:

- Use only the approved study materials in your research, including the recruitment materials and informed consent documents that have the IRB approval stamp.
- Obtain IRB approval prior to implementing any changes to the study by submitting the "Continuing Review and/or Modification" form.
- Immediately inform the IRB of (1) all serious and/or unexpected adverse experiences involving risks to subjects or others; and (2) any other unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects or others.
- Stop all research activity if IRB approval lapses, unless continuation is necessary to prevent harm to research participants. Research activity can resume once IRB approval is reestablished.
- Complete a new continuing review form at least three to four weeks prior to the date for continuing review as noted above to provide sufficient time for the IRB to review and approve continuation of the study. We will send a courtesy reminder as this date approaches.

Research investigators are expected to comply with the principles of the Belmont Report, and state and federal regulations regarding the involvement of humans in research. These documents are located on the Office for Responsible Research website <http://www.compliance.iastate.edu/irb/forms/> or available by calling (515) 294-4566.

Upon completion of the project, please submit a Project Closure Form to the Office for Responsible Research, 1138 Pearson Hall, to officially close the project.